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Piperazine Enhancing Sulfuric Acid-Based New Particle Formation : Implications for the Atmospheric Fate of Piperazine

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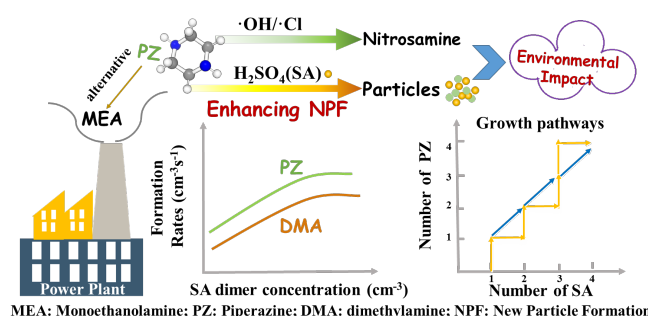
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ABSTRACT: Piperazine (PZ), a cyclic diamine, is one of 160 detected atmospheric amines and an alternative solvent to the widely used monoethanolamine in post-combustion CO₂ capture. Participating in H₂SO₄ (SA)-based new particle formation (NPF) could be an important removal pathway for PZ. Here, we employed quantum chemical calculations and kinetics modeling to evaluate the enhancing potential of PZ on SA-based NPF by examining the formation of PZ–SA clusters. The results indicate that PZ behaves more like a monoamine in stabilizing SA and can enhance SA-based NPF at the parts per trillion (ppt) level. The enhancing potential of PZ is less than that

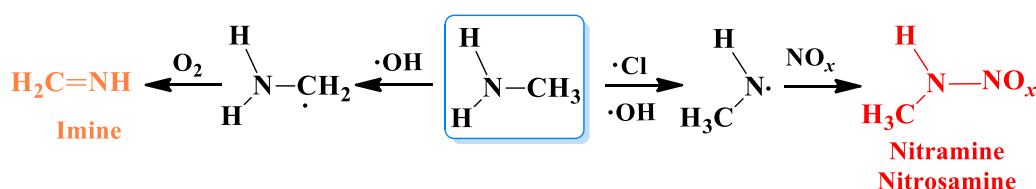
of the chainlike diamine putrescine, and greater than that of dimethylamine which is one of the strongest enhancing agents confirmed by ambient observations and experiments. After the initial formation of the (PZ)₁(SA)₁ cluster, the cluster mainly grows by gradual addition of SA or PZ monomer, followed by addition of (PZ)₁(SA)₁ cluster. We find that the ratio of PZ removal by NPF to that by the combination of NPF and oxidations is 0.5-0.97 at 278.15 K. As a result, the participation in the NPF pathway could significantly alter the environmental impact of PZ compared to only considering oxidation pathways.

INTRODUCTION

Amines are a class of atmospheric nitrogen-containing organic pollutants. Up to now, about 160 different amines have been detected in the atmosphere.¹ Amines are emitted into the atmosphere from both natural and anthropogenic sources including agriculture, biomass burning, animal husbandry, oceans, cooking, smoking and various industrial processes.¹⁻¹² It deserves mentioning that CO₂ capture units will become a significant source of amines once the promising amine-based CO₂ capture technology is implemented on a large scale.¹³⁻¹⁵ In recent years, the concern about the fate of amines has been increasing since the transformation of amines could potentially form carcinogenic nitrosamines.¹

Several studies have addressed the removal of amines by atmospheric oxidation.¹⁶⁻³⁹ The oxidation by hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) has been considered to be their main transformation pathway, followed by chlorine radicals ($\cdot\text{Cl}$), at daytime.^{18,32} The reactions with $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ lead to amines having an atmospheric lifetime on the order of hours.^{1,13,17-19,22-28,32} More importantly, the atmospheric oxidation by $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ can lead to the formation of N-center radicals, which can further react with NO_x ($x = 1, 2$) to form hazardous nitrosamines/nitramine (Scheme 1), increasing the environmental

risk of the amines emissions.^{17,18,28,30,32} Although the direct reaction of amines with NO_x can also lead to the formation of nitrosamines, several studies have shown that it is of little importance under atmospheric condition.^{13,40,41} Besides oxidation reactions, many studies have found that amines such as monomethylamine (MA), dimethylamine (DMA), trimethylamine (TMA) and monoethanolamine (MEA) can significantly enhance H₂SO₄ (SA)-based new particle formation (NPF) via acid-base reactions, an important process for the formation of atmospheric aerosol particles.⁴²⁻⁷² However, there are few studies concerning how the participation of amines in SA-based NPF competes with their oxidation pathways and thereby affects the fate of atmospheric amines. Our recent study indicated that the participation in SA-based NPF is an important sink for MEA, and it could even be comparable to the oxidation reaction pathway initiated by ·OH at 278.15 K.⁷⁰ This implies that the participation in NPF could be a significant pathway in determining the fate of other amines, especially those with high enhancing potential for SA-based NPF.



Scheme 1. Major reaction pathways for ·OH/·Cl initiated reactions of amines. Here exemplified using methylamine.

Piperazine (PZ), a cyclic secondary diamine, whose aqueous solution is considered an alternative solvent to MEA, a benchmark and widely used solvent in post-combustion CO₂ capture (PCCC) technology.^{73,74} Once PZ-based PCCC technology is implemented on a large scale, quantities of PZ might be released into the atmosphere from PCCC units due to its relatively high vapor pressure.⁷⁵ PZ has previously been identified as one of the 160 amines detected in the ambient atmosphere.¹ In Zonguldak

province, Turkey, the concentration of PZ was found to reach about 4 parts per trillion (ppt), which is higher than that of DMA (about 1 ppt) at the same location.⁷⁶ Our recent study showed that the daytime atmospheric oxidation of PZ initiated by $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ can lead to higher yield of carcinogenic nitrosamines compared to the corresponding oxidation process of MEA, implying higher environmental risk related to PZ than MEA emissions.³² Similar to MEA,⁷⁰ the participation of PZ in SA-based NPF via acid-base reactions could be a significant pathway to compete with its oxidation pathways. However, to the best of our knowledge, there are currently no studies that address the participation of PZ in SA-based NPF.

The gas phase basicity (GB) of amines has been suggested to be an important parameter in determining their enhancing potential on SA-based NPF.^{53,54} The GB value of PZ ($914.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) is significantly higher than those of previously studied monoamines and ammonia (MA 864.5 , DMA 896.5 , MEA 896.8 , NH_3 $819.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$).⁷⁷ Therefore, based purely on the GB, PZ should have much higher enhancing potential on SA-based NPF than NH_3 , MA, DMA and MEA under the assumption that they have similar atmospheric concentration. In addition, the steric effect of the $-\text{NH}-$ group in the cyclic PZ should be different from previously studied chainlike amines,^{56,70,78} which could influence its enhancing potential. At last, if the two $-\text{NH}-$ groups of PZ can synergistically interact with SA like chainlike diamine putrescine (PUT), PZ could have much higher enhancing potential than what is expected by its GB. However, due to its rigid cyclic structure, it is not easy to judge whether the two $-\text{NH}-$ groups of PZ can synergistically interact with SA. All in all, it is difficult to estimate the enhancing potential of PZ on SA-based NPF based on chemistry intuition. In addition, no previous studies have investigated the potential role of *cyclic* diamines in SA-based NPF. Thus, to comprehensively understand the atmospheric fate of PZ and

expand the knowledge of amines enhancing SA-based NPF, it is indispensable to investigate the participation of PZ in SA-based NPF.

Here, we investigated the initial step of PZ participating in SA-based NPF by examining the formation of $(\text{PZ})_x(\text{SA})_y$ ($x = 0-4$, $y = 0-4$) clusters by a combined method using quantum chemical calculations with the Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code (ACDC)⁷⁹⁻⁸². The results are compared with previous studies on the DMA-SA, MEA-SA and PUT-SA systems. In addition, the effect of adding water molecules to the clusters was also considered to study the effect of hydration on the cluster formation kinetics of PZ and SA molecules.

COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

Configurational Sampling and Electronic Structure Calculations. Obtaining a good estimate of the global free energy cluster structures remains a large challenge in modelling atmospheric NPF. Here, we employed a multi-step sampling scheme to search for the global minima of the $(\text{PZ})_x(\text{SA})_y$ ($x = 0-4$, $y = 1-4$) clusters. The pure $(\text{SA})_{1-4}$ clusters were taken from previous work.⁸¹ The multi-step sampling scheme has extensively been applied to study atmospheric cluster formation.^{70,78,83-88} In brief, the scheme includes the following six steps: (1) Large number of initial cluster configurations (about 10000 for most of clusters) are randomly generated; (2) All the configurations are initially optimized using the semiempirical PM6 method; (3) Single point energy calculations at the $\omega\text{B97X-D/6-31+G(d)}$ level of theory is performed on all the optimized configurations; (4) The identified lowest energy configurations within 10-15 kcal mol⁻¹ are fully optimized at the $\omega\text{B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p)}$ level of theory, followed by a vibrational frequency calculation; (5) For the identified lowest free energy configurations (within 1-2 kcal mol⁻¹ of the global minimum), the single point energy was refined with a DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ calculation; (6) Several of

the lowest free energy configurations (about 10 for most of clusters) are subsequently used to build initial configurations for the larger clusters starting over from (1). The initial PZ conformations for building the (PZ)₁(SA)₁ and (PZ)₂ clusters were obtained from our previous AIMD simulation.³² All geometry optimization, vibrational frequency calculations and single point energies using the PM6 and ω B97X-D methods were performed in the GAUSSIAN 09 program package.⁸⁹ The DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ calculation was performed in the ORCA 4.0.0 program.⁹⁰ The ω B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) and DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ methods were selected as the core optimization/frequency and single point energy calculations, respectively, since they have shown good performance for studying the formation of atmospheric molecular clusters.^{70,91,92} The Gibbs free energy (G) of the identified clusters were calculated at 298.15 K with the following formula:

$$G = E + G_{\text{corr}} \quad (1)$$

where E is the electronic single point energy at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ level of theory and G_{corr} is the Gibbs free energy correction at the ω B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory. The formation free energy (ΔG) for each cluster at 298.15 K was calculated by:

$$\Delta G = G_{\text{cluster}} - \Sigma G_{\text{monomer}} \quad (2)$$

where G_{cluster} and G_{monomer} is the free energy of the cluster and the constituent molecules, respectively. The ΔG values at other temperatures were calculated under the assumption that enthalpy (ΔH) and entropy (ΔS) change remain constant in the tropospheric temperature range. It is important to note that the ΔG values of the cluster systems used as a comparison (MEA-SA, DMA-SA, PUT-SA), were obtained at the same theoretical level as those in this study. The Cartesian coordinates of the stable PZ-SA

clusters were presented in the Supporting Information (SI).

To investigate the effect of hydration, we studied the $(\text{PZ})_x(\text{SA})_y\text{W}_z$ ($x = 0-2$, $y = 0-2$, $z = 1-5$, “W” represents H_2O) clusters. The $(\text{SA})_1\text{W}_{1-5}$ and $(\text{SA})_2\text{W}_{1-3}$ clusters were taken from previous studies.^{70,93} The global minima of $(\text{SA})_2\text{W}_{4-5}$ and $(\text{PZ})_{1-2}(\text{SA})_{1-2}\text{W}_{1-5}$ clusters were identified by the same sampling scheme that was used for the unhydrated PZ-SA clusters.

Atmospheric Clusters Dynamic Code (ACDC) Model. The time evolution of formation rates, steady-state concentrations and growth paths of clusters were studied using the ACDC code. The detailed theory of the ACDC can be seen in a previous study.⁸¹ Here, the simulation system was treated as a “ 4×4 ” box for the unhydrated PZ-SA system, where 4 is the maximum number of PZ or SA molecules of the clusters. The mobility diameter of the largest cluster is ~ 1.5 nm, which closely resembles the sizes of clusters that can be deemed stable against evaporation in the ambient atmosphere. The $(\text{PZ})_4(\text{SA})_5$ and $(\text{PZ})_5(\text{SA})_5$ clusters were set as the boundary clusters (SI). The ACDC simulations were mainly performed at 278.15 K. In addition, to probe the temperature effect, we also conducted simulations at other temperatures such as 258.15, 268.15, 288.15, 298.15 and 313.15 K. The concentration of SA ($[\text{SA}]$) and PZ ($[\text{PZ}]$) were set to be 10^5 , 10^6 , 10^7 and 10^8 cm^{-3} (a range relevant to atmospheric particle formation)^{62,94-97} and 1, 10, 100 ppt (partly higher than that (about 4 ppt) measured in Zonguldak province, Turkey),⁷⁶ respectively. To consider external losses, a constant coagulation sink coefficient of $2.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was used.^{98,99} When studying the effect of hydration, the simulation system was treated as a “ 2×2 ” box. The $[\text{SA}]$ and $[\text{PZ}]$ were set to be 10^6 cm^{-3} and 10 ppt, respectively, and the simulations were performed at 278.15 K. The equilibrium hydrate distribution for each cluster was calculated by the equilibrium constant for the formation of the respective hydrate.^{88,93,100} The $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_3$

and (PZ)₃(SA)₃ clusters were set as the boundary clusters for the hydrated system.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cluster Structures. Since many previous studies have already discussed the structures of pure SA clusters,⁸¹ herein, we mainly focus on the clusters (PZ)_x(SA)_y ($x = 0-4$, $y = 1-4$). The structures of (PZ)_x(SA)_y ($x = 0-4$, $y = 1-4$) clusters with the lowest Gibbs free energy were presented in Figure 1 and the number of the proton transfer observed in the PZ-SA clusters were shown in Table S2. For the homomolecular PZ clusters, proton transfer is not observed and all the clusters except (PZ)₂ are mainly stabilized by hydrogen bonds (H-bonds), similar to the cases of studied homomolecular NH₃ or amines clusters.^{56,58,59,69,70,78,101,102} However, the (PZ)₂ cluster is stabilized by two N···HC interactions. For heteromolecular PZ–SA clusters, proton transfer is observed in all cases and the clusters are stabilized by H-bonds and ionic electrostatic interactions. The proton transfer involves two different patterns. In the first pattern, only one proton of SA is transferred. Therefore, the formation of sulfate ion (SO₄²⁻) is not observed. In this pattern, PZ can accept one proton in two different ways: 1) one PZ molecule only accepts a single proton. The clusters following this way include (PZ)₁(SA)₁₋₃, (PZ)₂(SA)₁₋₄, (PZ)₃(SA)₁ and (PZ)₃(SA)₃. Therefore, only one –NH– group of PZ is protonated for these clusters. 2) one PZ molecule accepts two protons from different SA molecules. Therefore, the two –NH– groups of one PZ are protonated. This phenomenon is only observed in the (PZ)₁(SA)₄ cluster.

In the second pattern, one SA molecule transfers two protons to two different PZ molecules, resulting in the formation of a SO₄²⁻ and a single protonated –NH– group in the two PZ molecules, as seen in the (PZ)₄(SA)₁₋₄, (PZ)₃(SA)₂, and (PZ)₃(SA)₄ cluster structures. In the (PZ)₃(SA)₄ and (PZ)₄(SA)₄ clusters, two and one SA molecules do not transfer any proton, respectively, which makes the number of SA molecules that donate

194 a proton less than the number of protonated PZ. Therefore, one SA in these two clusters
195 has to donate two protons leading to the formation of a SO_4^{2-} . These patterns are vastly
196 different from previously reported amines (MA, MEA, DMA and PUT) and SA clusters
197 with the same composition of acid-base molecules.^{69,70,78} Note that the maximum
198 number of formed SO_4^{2-} is one in all considered clusters, in contrast to the clusters
199 consisting of SA and chainlike diamine PUT, in which several SO_4^{2-} can be formed.⁷⁸
200 The difference results from the fact that it is unfavorable for the rigid structure of PZ to
201 simultaneously accept two protons from one SA as opposed to chainlike diamines such
202 as PUT. Therefore, from a structural point of view, PZ behaves more like a monoamine
203 in stabilizing SA. Another structural feature in all the clusters except $(\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_4$ is that
204 only one of the $-\text{NH}-$ groups of PZ interacts with SA or PZ molecule, the remaining $-\text{NH}-$
205 group points towards the outside. Therefore, the two $-\text{NH}-$ groups of PZ neither
206 behave like chainlike diamine to accept two protons from one SA, nor like MEA to
207 synergistically interact with SA or another amine molecule via two functional
208 groups.^{70,78}

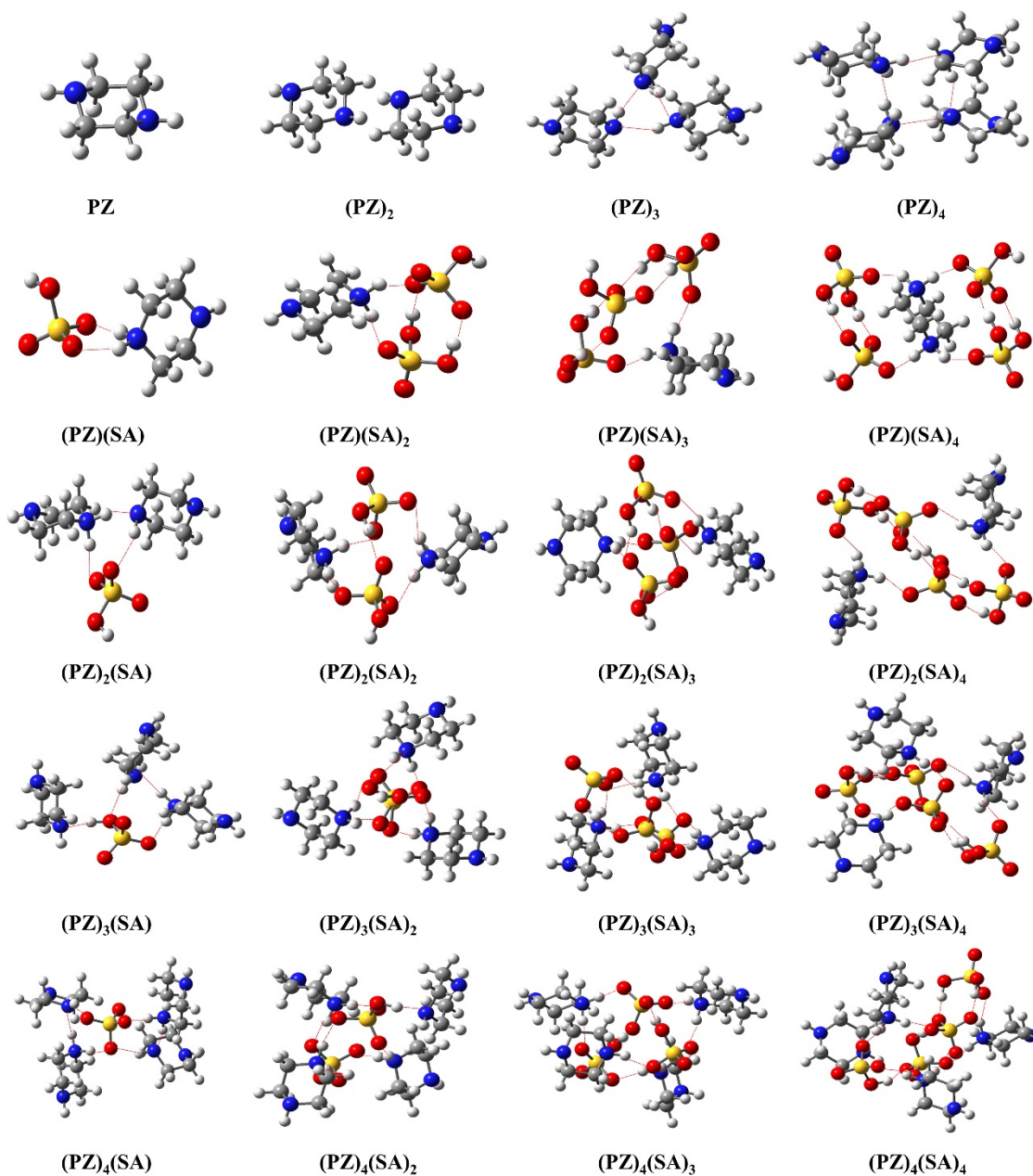


Figure 1. Identified lowest free energy structures of the $(PZ)_x(SA)_y$ ($x = 0-4$, $y = 1-4$) clusters at the ω B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory. The red, blue, gray and white balls represent oxygen, nitrogen, carbon and hydrogen atoms, respectively. Dashed red lines indicate hydrogen bonds.

Cluster Formation Free Energy. Both ambient observations and experimental studies have confirmed that DMA is one of the strongest species for stabilizing SA clusters and thus enhancing NPF.^{61,62,71} Therefore, the ΔG values of the DMA–SA system were taken as reference to discuss those of the PZ–SA system. The formation free energy

surface of the PZ–SA system obtained at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ level of theory and 278.15 K was shown in Figure 2A, and the corresponding formation free energy surface at 298.15 K, ΔH and ΔS values were presented in SI. A comparison for the formation free energies at the ω B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level and the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ level was presented in SI. As can be seen in Figure 2A, the ΔG values for all the PZ–SA clusters are lower than those of the corresponding DMA–SA clusters,⁷⁰ implying a high enhancing potential of PZ on SA-based NPF. The lower ΔG values of all PZ–SA clusters relative to the corresponding DMA–SA clusters are consistent with the order of their GB values (PZ > DMA). Therefore, the GB plays a determining role in the ΔG values of PZ–SA clusters, agreeing well with recent finding on the importance of the GB in the ΔG values for < 2 nm amine-SA clusters.^{55,103}

For the potential use of PZ as an alternative solvent to MEA in PCCC applications, it is interesting to compare the ΔG values of PZ–SA with the MEA–SA systems. It was found that ΔG values of the majority of the PZ–SA clusters are lower than those of the corresponding MEA–SA clusters with the exception of the (PZ)₂₋₄ and (PZ)₁(SA)₃₋₄ clusters. This exception illustrates the important role of the –OH group of MEA in the formation of MEA–SA clusters as presented in our previous study.⁷⁰

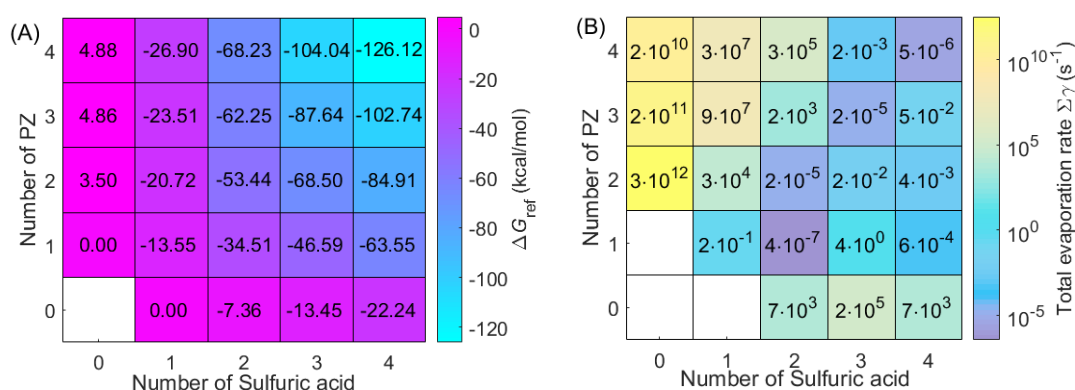


Figure 2. Calculated formation free energies (ΔG) (A) for (PZ)_x(SA)_y clusters ($x = 0-4$, $y = 0-4$) at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ// ω B97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory and corresponding total evaporation rates (B) for each cluster at 278.15 K and

the reference pressure of PZ and SA is set to 1 atm.

Evaporation Rates and Cluster Stability. Comparing the evaporation rate of a cluster to the growth rate due to the collisions with vapor molecules at the given acid and base concentration yields a measure of the stability of the cluster against evaporation. The calculated evaporation rates of all PZ–SA clusters at 278.15 K were presented in Figure 2B. According to the condition judging the stability of a cluster (the cluster with evaporation rate lower than 10^{-3} s^{-1} is stable when the concentration of acid or base monomer is around or above ppt level), only $(\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_2$, $(\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_4$, $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_2$, $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_4$, $(\text{PZ})_3(\text{SA})_3$, $(\text{PZ})_4(\text{SA})_3$, and $(\text{PZ})_4(\text{SA})_4$ clusters can be considered stable enough against evaporation. The three clusters along the diagonal $((\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_2$, $(\text{PZ})_3(\text{SA})_3$, $(\text{PZ})_4(\text{SA})_4$) as well as the $(\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_2$ clusters are the most stable with evaporation rates of 10^{-5} – 10^{-7} s^{-1} . In addition, the clusters $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_3$ and $(\text{PZ})_3(\text{SA})_4$ are relatively stable with evaporation rates in the order of 10^{-2} s^{-1} . By checking the evaporation rates for all possible evaporation pathways of each of the PZ–SA clusters (Table S3), it was found that the main decay route for all PZ–SA clusters (except clusters $(\text{PZ})_4(\text{SA})_{2-4}$) is via evaporation of a PZ or SA monomer. A detailed discussion on the main decay routes for all PZ–SA clusters were presented in SI.

It is also interesting to compare cluster evaporation rates for the different amines (MEA, DMA, PZ and PUT) at the same simulation conditions. Generally, most of the PZ–SA clusters have lower evaporation rates than the corresponding DMA/MEA/PUT–SA clusters.^{70,78} For the number of clusters with evaporation rates less than or around 10^{-3} s^{-1} , the PZ–SA system is equal to that of the PUT–SA system and higher than the MEA/DMA–SA systems. The PZ–SA system has more clusters with evaporation rates less than or around 10^{-5} s^{-1} than any other amines-SA systems. This indicates that the PZ–SA system has more stable clusters than the MEA/DMA–SA

systems and more high stable clusters than the PUT–SA system. In addition, these stable clusters for the PZ–SA system are more even-distributed among the clusters with different size than those of other systems. The above results do not necessarily guarantee the faster growth of PZ–SA system compared to the DMA/MEA/PUT–SA systems. However, the higher number of stable clusters will facilitate the growth of the PZ–SA system once the crucial PZ–SA cluster is formed. When the initially formed one SA and one base cluster, which are crucial for cluster growth at relevant SA and base concentration for PZ–SA (see Section Growth Pathway), DMA–SA, MEA–SA and PUT–SA systems,^{69,70,78} are compared, the trend in evaporation rate follows $(\text{PUT})_1(\text{SA})_1 > (\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_1 > (\text{DMA})_1(\text{SA})_1 > (\text{MEA})_1(\text{SA})_1$ at the given acid and base concentrations.^{70,78}

Steady-State Cluster Concentrations and Formation Rates. The cluster formation rates (J_{PZ}) and steady-state sulfuric acid dimer concentrations ($\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PZ})_i]$) as a function of the concentration of SA (10^5 – 10^8 cm⁻³) and PZ (1–100 ppt) for the PZ–SA system at 278.15 K were presented in Figure 3. The comparison with the DMA–SA (J_{DMA} , $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{DMA})_i]$), PUT–SA (J_{PUT} , $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PUT})_i]$) and MEA–SA (J_{MEA} , $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{MEA})_i]$) cluster systems were shown in Figure S3. As can be seen in Figure 3, with increasing [SA] and [PZ], J_{PZ} and $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PZ})_i]$ gradually increase. As the [PZ] increases, $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PZ})_i]$ becomes saturated. More importantly, the J_{PZ} is 1 – 10^3 , 8 – 10^3 and 0.02 – 0.9 times that of J_{DMA} , J_{MEA} and J_{PUT} , respectively, and $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PZ})_i]$ is 0.7 – 2 , 5 – 80 and 0.08 – 0.9 times that of $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{DMA})_i]$, $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{MEA})_i]$ and $\sum_i [(\text{SA})_2(\text{PUT})_i]$, respectively, depending on the concentration of SA and amines. The enhancing potential of these four amines follows

the order PUT > PZ > DMA > MEA, consistent with the order of their GB values (PUT 954.3, PZ 914.7, DMA 896.5, MEA 896.8 kJ mol⁻¹) except for MEA. In addition, both J_{PZ} and $\sum_i [(SA)_2(PZ)_i]$ present a negative temperature dependence in temperature range of 258.15–313.15 K (Figure S4), similar to the case of the MEA–SA system.⁷⁰

We noted that ambient observations and experiments have shown that DMA is a dominant enhancing agent for SA-based NPF at 5–10 ppt level although its atmospheric concentration is 2-3 orders magnitude lower than that of ammonia and similar to or a little lower than other atmospheric amines.^{1,62,71,104} In ambient observations and experiments, coexisting amines with DMA mainly included monoamines.²⁻⁴ With our computational data, the required concentration of PZ, which can lead to a similar enhancing effect of 5–10 ppt DMA on SA-based NPF at 278.15 K, is estimated. It is found that 2–4 ppt PZ ([SA] = 10⁷ cm⁻³) and 1.5–3 ppt PZ ([SA] = 10⁶ cm⁻³) yield a similar enhancing effect as 5-10 ppt DMA. Therefore, it can be concluded that PZ can significantly enhance SA-based NPF when the atmospheric [PZ] reaches ppt level, a similar concentration as measured in the Zonguldak province, Turkey.⁷⁶ These findings imply that if PZ is used as PCCC solvent, local discharges will lead to a high potential to form new particles in the atmosphere.

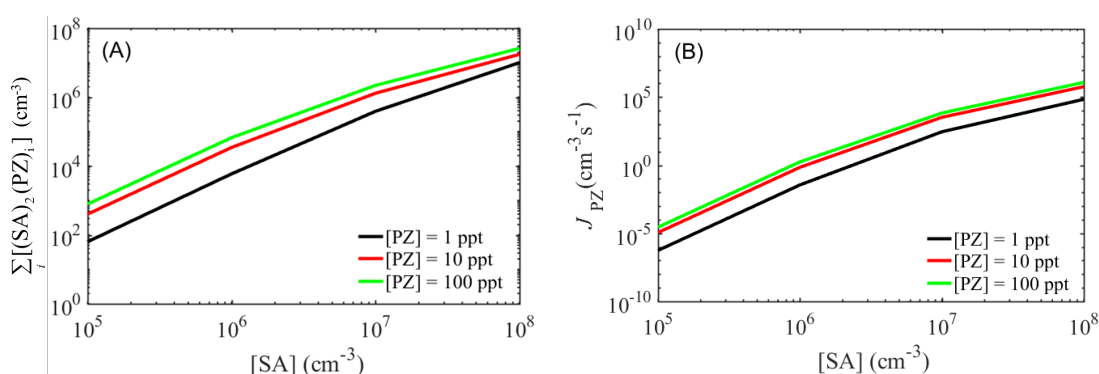


Figure 3. Simulated steady-state SA dimer concentration $\sum_i [(SA)_2(PZ)_i]$ (cm⁻³) (A) and the cluster formation rates J_{PZ} (cm⁻³ s⁻¹) out of the simulation systems (B) as a

function of [PZ] at 278.15 K.

Growth Pathways. The growth pathway and actual Gibbs free energy surface for the PZ–SA clusters at 278.15 K, $[SA] = 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $[PZ] = 10 \text{ ppt}$ were shown in Figure 4. As can be seen in Figure 4A, the first step of the PZ–SA system growth is the formation of the $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster, similar to the cases of the MEA–SA and DMA–SA systems.⁷⁰ The growth of the formed $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster mainly proceeds by first adding one SA molecule, and then one PZ molecule until the formation of $(PZ)_3(SA)_3$ cluster. This mechanism is similar to the case of the MEA–SA system.⁷⁰ However, different from MEA–SA system, the $(PZ)_3(SA)_3$ cluster growth mainly proceeds by first adding one PZ molecule, and then one SA molecule to form $(PZ)_4(SA)_4$ cluster. Collisions with the $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster, instead of PZ or SA molecule, contributes 20-33% to the formation of $(PZ)_2(SA)_2$, $(PZ)_3(SA)_3$ and $(PZ)_4(SA)_4$ clusters. $(PZ)_4(SA)_5$ (57%) is main cluster leaving the simulation box, followed by $(PZ)_5(SA)_5$ (24%), $(PZ)_6(SA)_5$ (10%) and other clusters (9%). Combining the growth pathway with the actual Gibbs free energy surface (Figure 4B), it can be seen that only the cluster $(PZ)_2(SA)_2 \rightarrow (PZ)_2(SA)_3$ process needs to overcome a small barrier, whereas the remaining processes along the main growth pathway are barrierless after the formation of the $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster. However, the growth pathway via cluster collisions with $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster along the diagonal is barrierless along the entire growth pathway. Combining the growth pathway with the evaporation rate of the PZ–SA system, we conclude that the formation of initial $(PZ)_1(SA)_1$ cluster is the rate determining step for the cluster growth due to its instability compared with other clusters in the growth pathway, similar to cases of clusters containing SA and other amines including MA, MEA and DMA.⁷⁰

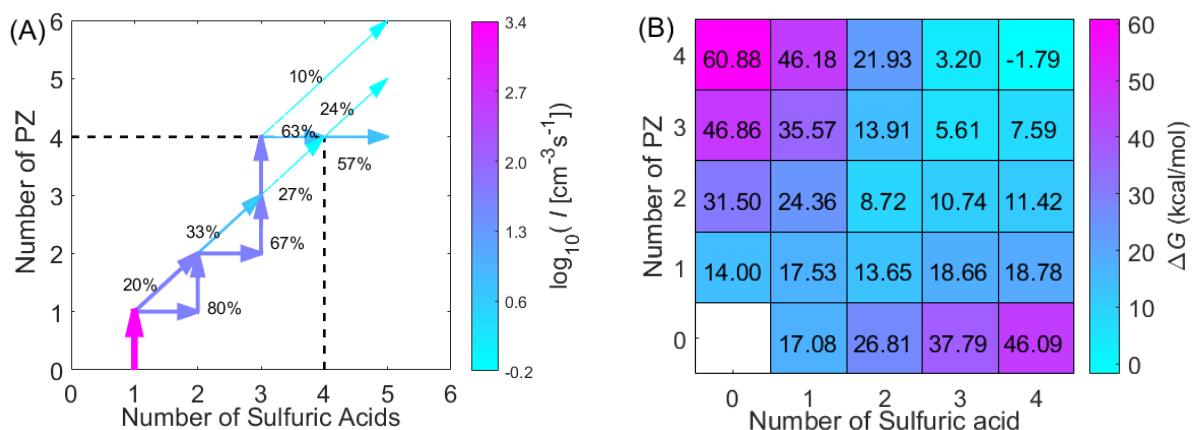


Figure 4. Main clustering pathways (A) and actual Gibbs free energy surface (B) for the formation of clusters $(\text{PZ})_x(\text{SA})_y$ ($x = 0-4$, $y = 0-4$) at 278.15 K, $[\text{SA}] = 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, and $[\text{PZ}] = 10 \text{ ppt}$.

Hydration Effect. We considered 1–5 H_2O molecules to study the effect of hydration on the formation kinetics of the PZ–SA clusters. It should be noted that only clusters $(\text{PZ})_x(\text{SA})_y$ ($x = 0-2$, $y = 0-2$) were considered as a test to investigate the effect of hydration as the computational cost increasing rapidly when studying larger clusters. Details for the discussion on the calculated stepwise hydration free energies and the optimized conformations of the hydrated PZ-SA clusters were presented in the SI. The calculated equilibrium hydrate distributions of the clusters at 278.15 K and relative humidities (RH) 20%, 50% and 80% were presented in Figure S5. Figure S5 shows that the PZ–SA clusters are hydrated by less than three H_2O molecules depending on the RH. The evaporation rates and formation rates compared to dry conditions as a function of RH at 278.15 K were presented in Figure 5. Figure 5A shows that the effect of hydration on the evaporation rates depends on the cluster composition. Hydration has little effect on the $(\text{SA})_2$ cluster and almost no effect on the $(\text{PZ})_2$ and $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_2$ clusters. However, the evaporation rates of the $(\text{PZ})_1(\text{SA})_2$ and $(\text{PZ})_2(\text{SA})_1$ clusters can be increased up to 50 and 190 times by hydration compared to the dry cases, respectively. However, hydration can greatly decrease (up to 50 times) the evaporation

rate of the initially formed (PZ)₁(SA)₁ cluster, the rate-determining step for the cluster growth in the system. This is the main reason for the increase in the cluster formation rates (Figure 5B) when hydration is considered compared to the dry case. The cluster formation rates increase up to 2 times compared to the dry case. Therefore, from these small cluster hydration simulations, we can conclude that hydration has a significant effect on the evaporation rates and a minor effect on the formation rates.

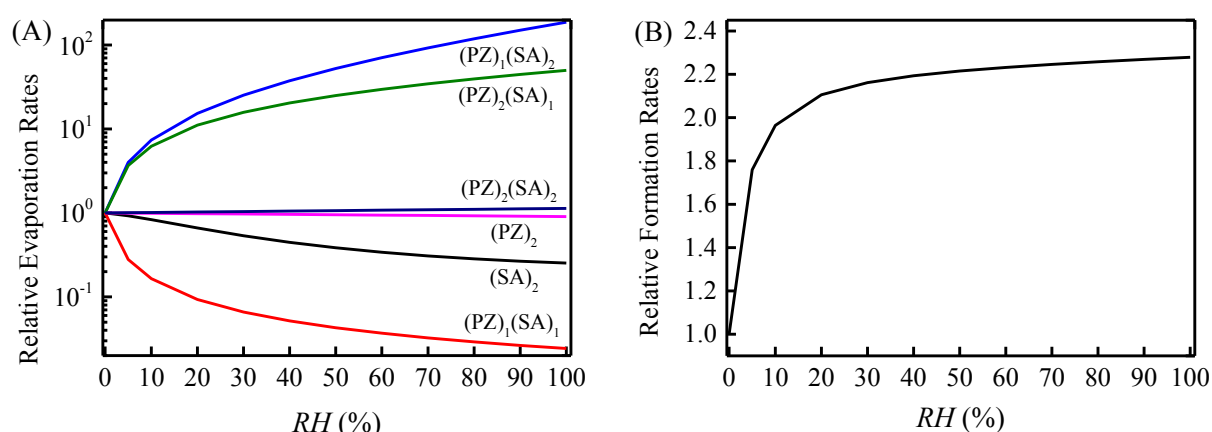


Figure 5. Relative evaporation rates (A) and cluster formation rates ($[SA] = 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $[PZ] = 10 \text{ ppt}$) (B) as a function of relative humidities (RH) at 278.15 K.

Implications. We have revealed that PZ at ppt level can significantly enhance SA-based NPF. The enhancing potential of PZ is higher than that of DMA and MEA, and lower than that of PUT.^{70,78} The order of the enhancing potential of the amines is consistent with that of their GB, further indicating the important role of GB of amines involved in SA-based NPF. In addition, we showed that the two $-NH-$ groups of PZ cannot synergistically interact with SA, making PZ behave similarly to monoamines as opposed to chainlike diamines in stabilizing SA. In this way, one of the $-NH-$ groups points outwards from the clusters. The existence of the exterior $-NH-$ group on the surface of the clusters would make the subsequent growth mechanism of the PZ-SA nucleus different from other cases of amines-SA nucleation. It could be interesting to probe the further growth mechanism of PZ-SA nucleation in future by studying larger

cluster structures.

Obviously, the participation in SA-based NPF is one removal pathway for the emitted PZ, similar to the case of MEA. The removal rate constants (k_{SA}) of PZ by participating in SA-based NPF are estimated to be 3.2×10^{-10} and $4.0 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 278.15 K at dry (RH = 0) and 50% RH conditions, respectively (SI). Previous studies have shown that the reactions with $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ are important removal pathways for PZ at daytime, due to their high reaction rate constants ($k_{OH} = 2.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{Cl} = 4.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) at 278.15 K.^{28,32} The three reactive agents ($\cdot\text{OH}$, $\cdot\text{Cl}$ and SA) toward PZ can coexist in the atmosphere and the concentration of $\cdot\text{Cl}$ ($[\cdot\text{Cl}]$) and [SA] is estimated to be around 0.01–0.1 and 1–19 times of that of $\cdot\text{OH}$ ($[\cdot\text{OH}]$) during daytime, respectively.^{105–110} Based on k_{SA} , k_{OH} , k_{Cl} , [SA], $[\cdot\text{OH}]$ and $[\cdot\text{Cl}]$, we estimated the contribution of the participation in SA-based NPF (Con_{SA}) to the removal of PZ by $k_{SA}[\text{SA}]/(k_{OH}[\cdot\text{OH}] + k_{Cl}[\cdot\text{Cl}] + k_{SA}[\text{SA}])$ at 278.15 K and RH=0 or 50% (Table S6). As can be seen in Table S6, Con_{SA} is 50%–97%, indicating the participation in SA-based NPF is a dominant removal pathway for PZ at 278.15 K, especially at high [SA]. It was found that the Con_{SA} to the removal of PZ has a negative temperature dependence in temperature range of 258.15–313.15 K (Figure S6). When the temperature effect is considered, the participation in SA-based NPF still play an important role in removing PZ at all atmospheric conditions, except a combined condition of low [SA], low RH and high temperature. Therefore, if ignoring the participation of PZ in SA-based NPF, the contribution of atmospheric oxidation by $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ to the removal of PZ will be highly overestimated. In addition, the contribution of the participation in SA-based NPF on PZ removal is higher than that to the MEA removal at both 0 and 50% RH conditions, and 278.15 K (SI). More importantly, the high contribution of the NPF pathway to the removal of PZ decreases the overall

nitrosamine yield compared to only considering the atmospheric $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{Cl}$ oxidation pathways. The higher contribution of the NPF pathway to the removal of PZ than that to the removal of MEA decreases their relative risk of nitrosamine formation. A detailed discussion on the reevaluation of the overall nitrosamine yield of PZ and MEA was presented in SI. Therefore, this study further stresses that the participation in SA-based NPF should be considered for other atmospheric amines to evaluate the environmental risk, especially for the formation of carcinogenic nitrosamine.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. Details of the chosen boundary conditions, comparison for the formation free energies at low and high theoretical level, observed number of proton transfers in the PZ-SA system, stepwise hydration free energies, removal rate constants of PZ by participating in SA-based NPF, main decay route for all PZ-SA clusters, thermochemical information of PZ-SA clusters, ΔG values of PZ-SA clusters at 298.15 K, evaporation rates for all evaporation pathways of PZ-SA clusters, the cluster formation rates and steady-state SA dimer concentrations as a function of temperature, conformations of the hydrated PZ-SA clusters, hydrate distribution of studied clusters, Con_{SA} to the removal of PZ and MEA, detailed discussion on the reevaluation of the overall nitrosamine yield of PZ and MEA and coordinates of all optimized clusters.

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